CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE SOUTH FLORENCE TAP 69kV TRANSMISSION LINE, FLORENCE COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 452

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of a 4.5 mile corridor in the central portion of Florence County, south of the city of Florence, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The corridor is to be used by Pee Dee Electric Cooperative for the construction of a transmission line. The transmission line will connect a substation to an existing transmission line to the west. The topography is generally flat with no distinct ridge tops, but does cross several drainages and a swamp.

The proposed route will require the clearing of the corridor, followed by construction of the proposed transmission line. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be on or within sight of the project corridor. For this study, an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile around the proposed transmission line was assumed.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology failed to identify any previously recorded sites.

The S.C. Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted for any previously recorded sites. No such sites were found in the project APE. Several small surveys have been completed for parts of Florence County like one conducted by the State Historic Preservation office in 1982, however, no sites were found in the APE.

The archaeological survey of the corridor incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the centerline of the 75-fot right-of-way. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 240 shovel tests were excavated along the corridor.

As a result of these investigations no sites were identified. This is likely due to the lack of any distinct ridge top and distance from a permanent water source.

A survey of public roads within a 0.5 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. One c. 1875 house (0111) was identified within sight of the transmission corridor and while the owner stated that the interior has been virtually untouched over the years, the exterior has received some significant modifications. The house then is recommended not eligible for the National Register.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative in Columbia, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Pee Dee Electric Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of a 4.5 mile corridor, situated in central Florence County south of the city of Florence (Figure 1). The project runs approximately east-west between a substation and an existing transmission line.

The proposed corridor, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used as a transmission line. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing and construction, including erection of poles, will damage the ground surface and any archaeological resources that may be present in the survey area.

Construction, operation, and maintenance of the substation may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. The project will not directly affect any historic structures (since none are located on the survey corridor), but the completed facility may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating what many consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile in diameter around the survey corridor.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development in this portion of Florence County.

We were requested by Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to perform a cultural resources survey on July 17, 2006. This included examination of the site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work no previously identified sites were found.

Initial background investigations also incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History. As a result of that work no sites were identified in the 0.5 mile APE. Several small surveys have been completed for parts of Florence County like one conducted by the State Historic Preservation office in 1982, however, no sites were found in the APE.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on August 22, 2006 by Ms. Julie Poppell and Ms. Kim Igou under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

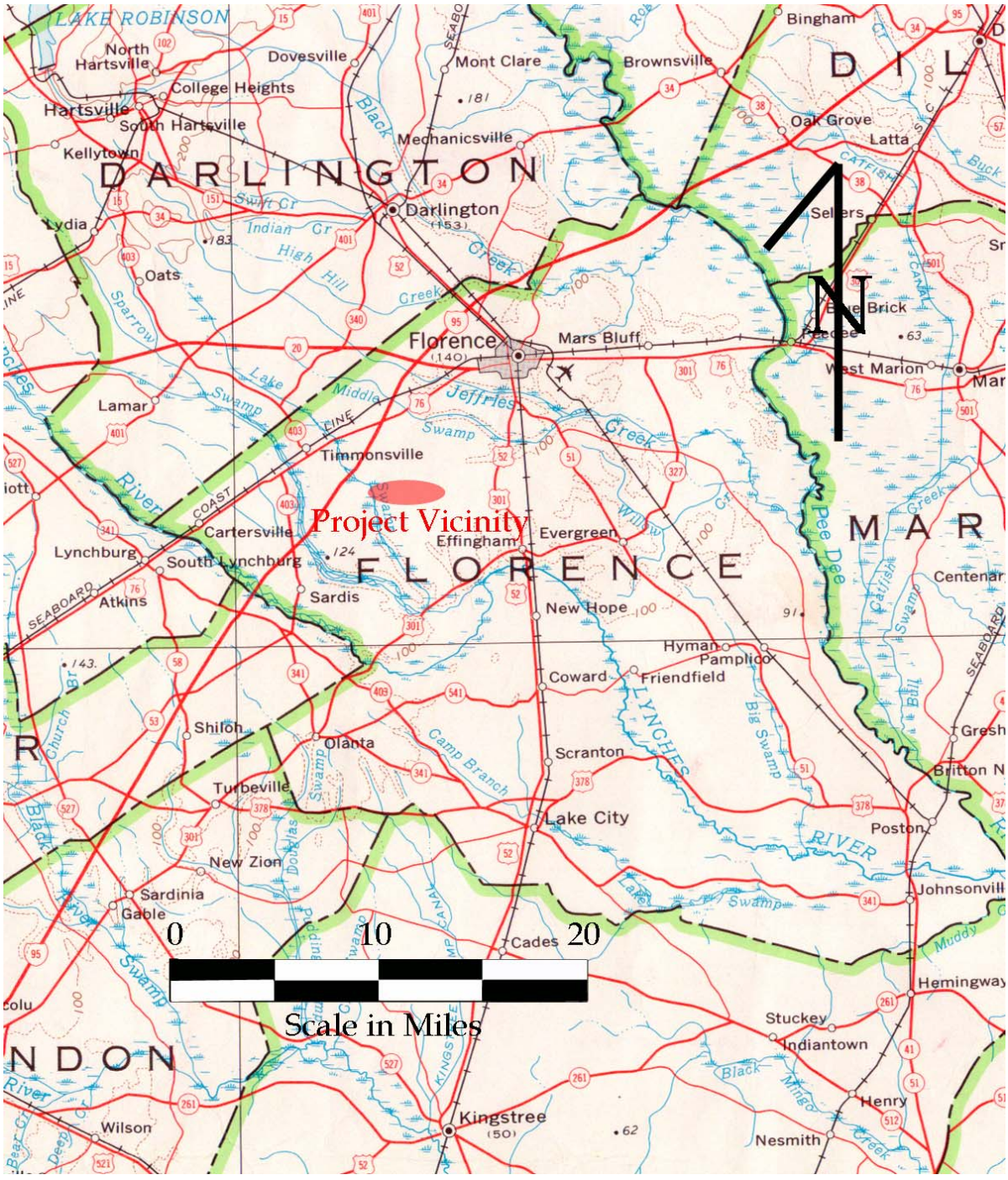

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Florence County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

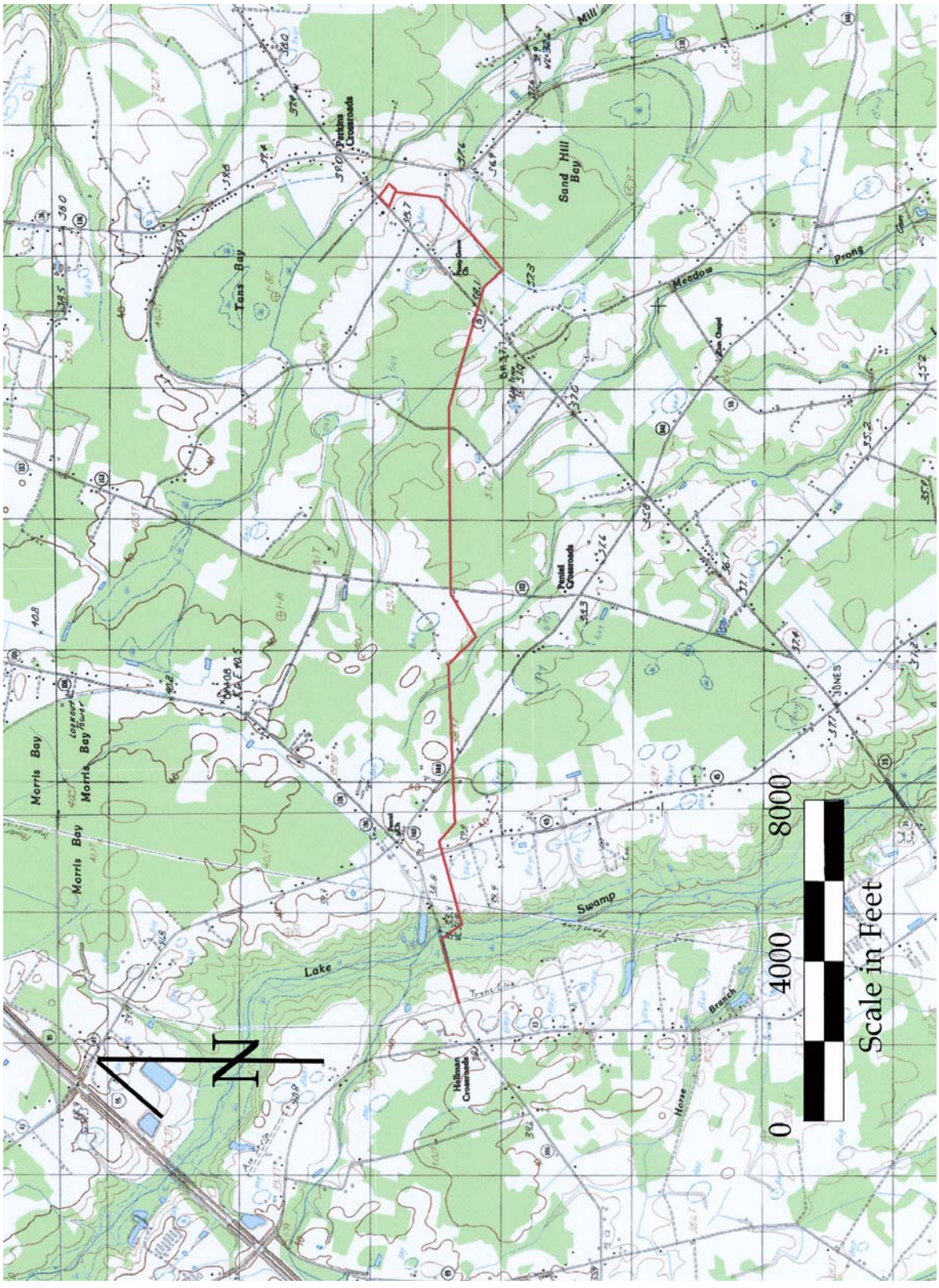

Figure 2. Survey corridor (basemap is USGS Sardis and Effingham 7.5').

ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

Physiography

Florence County is situated in the Inner and Middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded to the north by Marlboro and Dillon counties, to the west by Darlington, Lee and Sumter counties, and the Lynches River, to the south by Clarendon and Williamsburg counties and to the east by the Pee Dee River, which separates it from Marion County. The land primarily consists of gently rolling hills with elevations ranging from about 20 feet above mean sea level in parts of the river floodplains to a high of about 150 feet above sea level in the Florence-Timmonsville area. Most of the county has an elevation between 70 and 150 feet above sea level (Pitts 1974:109).

The county is drained by the Pee Dee river system that flows in a southeasterly direction and forms somewhat of a dendritic drainage pattern. It includes the Lynches River, which merges with the Pee Dee in the southeastern corner of the county, as well as with smaller streams such as Claussen Creek, Jeffries Creek, and Muddy Creek.

The corridor is situated in the central portion of Florence County -- an area that is generally characterized by low, flatlands interspersed with small drainages, a few larger swamps, and numerous small bays.

The topography is generally flat with no distinct ridge tops. The corridor does cross two small drainages as well as Lake Swamp toward the western end. Several bays are adjacent to the corridor as well.

Often described as flatwoods, the region is characterized by broad flat areas, which consist of a few low ridges and bay depressions. The most common depressions in the Coastal Plain are Carolina bays, usually marshy and oval in shape (Richards 1950:45-46). Water depth varies from shallow lakes to areas with a preponderance of peat and herbaceous species (Barry 1980:131-13). Edmond Ruffin, a mid-nineteenth century observer, commented that these features provided good pasturage for cattle (Mathew 1992:210). Soils in such areas are generally poorly drained loamy sands and the typical vegetation is usually mesic or swampy, often characterized by bay trees.

Figure 3. View of the corridor through Lake Swamp.

Figure 4. View of mixed pines and hardwoods along the corridor.

Geology and Soils

The geology is characteristic of the Coastal Plain. The parent materials of the soils are marine or fluvial deposits that consist of varying amounts of sands, silts, and clays. There are two primary geologic formations deposited at different periods during alternating transgression and recession of the ocean: the Duplin Marl Formation underlies parts of the southern and western portions of the county; the Black Creek Formation is found in the northern portion of the county (Park 1980).

Overlying these formations is a relatively thin mantle of undifferentiated light-colored sands and gravels with clay layers of Plio-Pleistocene age. The Pleistocene deposits include the Brandywine terrace (215 to 270 feet MSL), the Coharie terrace (170 to 215 feet MSL), the Sunderland terrace (100 to 170 feet MSL), the Penholoway terrace (42 to 70 feet MSL), the Talbot terrace (25 to 42 feet MSL), and the Pamlico terrace (less than 25 feet MSL) (Pitts 1974:109-110).

The project corridor is identified with nine soils – the well drained Norfolk loamy sands, the moderately well drained Barth, Goldsboro, and Olanta series, the somewhat poorly drained Lynchburg sandy loams, the poorly drained Coxville, Rains, and Wehadkee soils, and the very poorly drained Rutledge soils.

Norfolk soils have an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) loamy sand to 0.7 foot over a pale brown (10YR6/3) loamy sand to a depth of just over 1.0 foot.

The Barth Series has an Ap horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy sand to 0.7 foot in depth over a dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) loamy sand to 1.2 feet in depth. Goldsboro soils have an Ap horizon of dark gray (10YR4/1) loamy sand to 0.6 foot in depth over a pale brown (10YR6/3) loamy sand to 1.3 feet in depth. Olanta soils have an Ap horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy sand to 0.6 foot in depth over a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) loamy sand to just under 1.0 foot in depth.

Lynchburg soils have an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) sandy loam to 0.4 foot in depth over a dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) fine sandy loam to 0.8 foot in depth.

Coxville soils have an Ap horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) fine sandy loam to 0.5 foot in depth over a gray (10YR5/1) sandy clay loam to 0.9 foot in depth. Rains soils have an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) sandy loam to 0.6 foot in depth over a light brownish gray (10YR6/2) sandy loam to 1.0 foot in depth. The frequently flooded Wehadkee soils have an A horizon of light brownish gray (10YR6/2) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.6 foot over a gray (10YR6/1) fine sandy loam to 2.5 feet in depth.

The Rutledge Series has an A horizon of black (10YR2/1) loamy sand to 1.0 foot in depth over a dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy sand to a depth of 1.7 feet.

Figure 5. View of a planted field along the corridor.

Mills comments that the swampland soils are composed of the "richest soil." He notes for nearby Marion District that "[w]hile the swamp lands reclaimed and secured from freshets, will bring 50 dollars an acre; and the oak and hickory lands 15 dollars an acre; the pine lands will scarcely sell for 1 dollar per acre" (Mills 1972:623 [1826]). The flatlands, "are, by comparison, sand barrens; yet occasionally presenting some good timber land" (Mills 1972:513 [1826]). And while the uplands were healthy, with summers free of disease, he observed that, "on the rivers, creeks, and flat lands, this district is subject to bilious fevers, and cannot be called healthy" (Mills 1972:515 [1826]). The products cultivated during that time were "cotton, corn, wheat, pease, and potatoes" (Mills 1972:623 [1826]).

Climate

The general climate of the Florence county area is characterized by mild humid conditions. This climate is influenced by the warm Gulf Stream, as well as by the Appalachian Mountains, which block the coldest air masses. Other factors include latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracts of migratory cyclones. Day to day weather is controlled primarily by the movement of pressure systems across the nation. However, during the summer months there are few complete exchanges of air masses because tropical maritime air persists for extended periods (Pitts 1974:108).

The average annual precipitation in the Florence area is 44.5 inches and is unevenly distributed throughout the year, with 28.9 inches occurring from April through October, which is the primary growing season (Pitts 1974:108).

The climate, according to Mills (1972:625 [1826]), "taking the whole year round, is pleasant." The annual average temperature in Florence is 63.2°F, and the average monthly temperature ranges from 44.8°F in January to 80.3°F in July. Frozen precipitation occurs only one to three times a year during the winter season. The abundant supply of warm, moist and relatively unstable air produces frequent scattered showers and thunderstorms in the summer.

Severe weather usually means violent thunderstorms, tornadoes, and hurricanes. The tropical storm season is in late summer and early fall, although storms may occur as early as May or as late as October (NOAA 1977). Heavy rains and high winds occur with tropical storms about once every six years. Storms of hurricane intensity are much more infrequent. Notable droughts have occurred twice in modern times: in 1925 and 1954. Typically, a serious drought may occur once every fifty years. Less severe dry periods have occurred

more often, normally in late spring or in autumn (Pitts 1974:109).

Floristics

The survey corridor crosses several landscapes including mixed pine and hardwood forests, Carolina bays, planted fields, and hardwood stands at Lake Swamp.

In the early nineteenth century Mills observed that:

> the long leafed pine is most abundant of the forest trees; next the cypress, various kinds of oak, the hickory, tupilo &c. Of fruit trees the peach, apple, pear, plum,. &c. are common (Mills 1972:624 [1826]).

Mills also observed that the major use of these forest resources was construction, also noting "good clay is found in various places, suitable to make brick" (Mills 1972:625 [1826]). Only lime, largely made of burnt shells, needed to be imported into the area (primarily from neighboring Georgetown). Mills encouraged the residents to make better use of their local "shell limestone" for lime, a suggestion that appears to have made little impact in the local economy (Mills 1972:628 [1826]).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Prehistoric Overview

Overviews for South Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's *Formative Cultures* (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Sassaman et al. 1990 and Goodyear and Hanson 1989). Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic and by Anderson et al. (1992) for the Paleoindian and Early Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study areas. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I*. Figure 6 offers a generalized view of South Carolina's cultural periods.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.[1] Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie (1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b:Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity. What is clear is that points are found fairly far removed from the origin of the raw material. Charles and Michie suggest that this may "imply a geographically extensive settlement system" (Charles and Michie 1992:247).

Although data are sparse, one of the more attractive theories that explains the widespread distribution of Paleoindian sites is the model

[1] While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

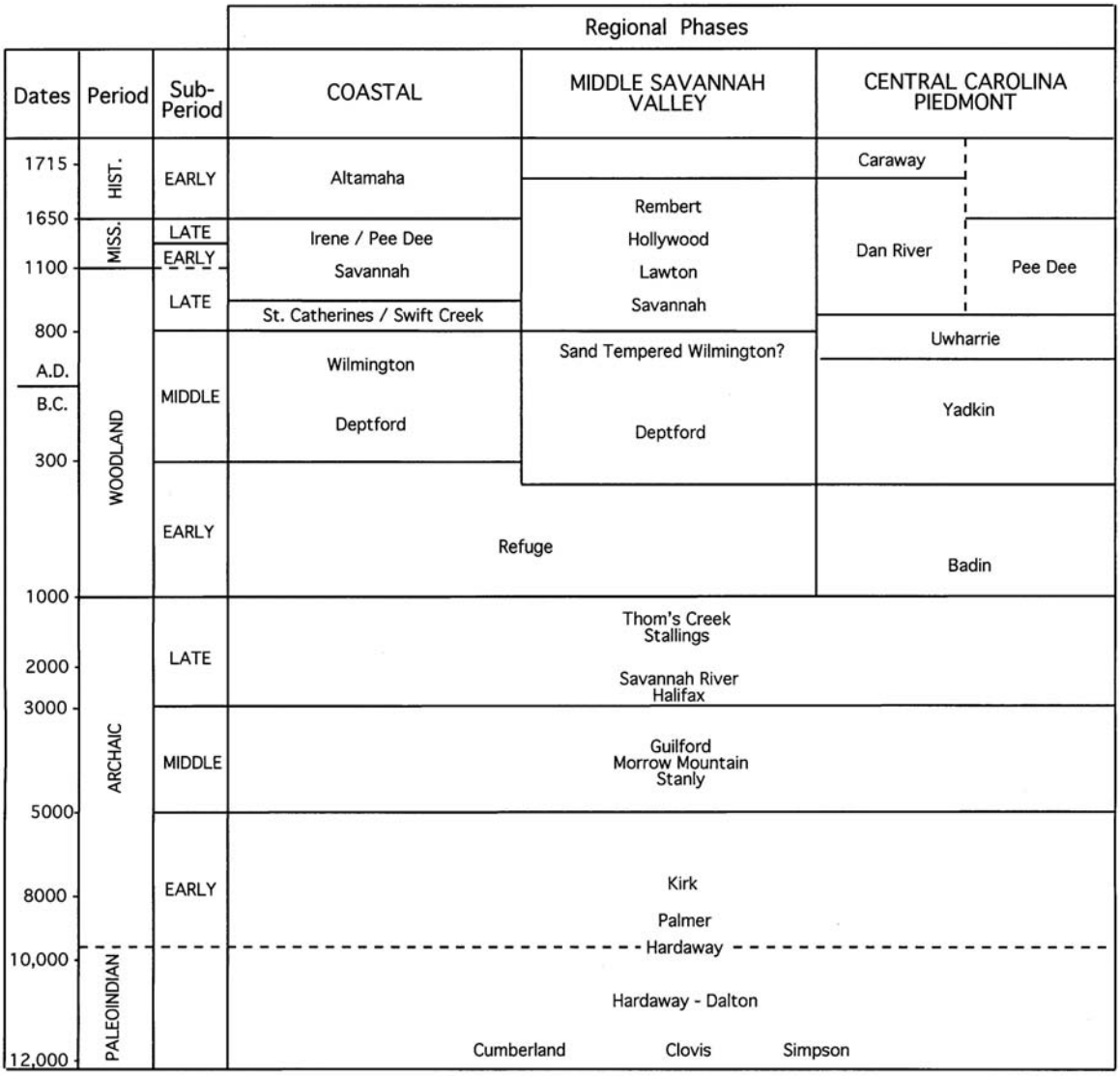

Figure 6. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaption" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps reflecting movement either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of

circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[2], does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites that can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts C these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials that has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the

[2] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Woodland artifacts is the Morrow Mountain Stemmed projectile point. Originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily on the size of the blade and the stem, Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups that would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site (38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina (Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one that

includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations that focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

> the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina

Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine that reduced the oak-hickory nut masts, which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sandhills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery, which is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a

pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.[3] This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery, little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

On the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, researchers are finding evidence of a Middle Woodland Yadkin assemblage, best known from Coe's work at the Doerschuk site in North Carolina (Coe 1964:25-26). Yadkin pottery is characterized by a crushed quartz temper and cord marked, fabric impressed, and linear check stamped surface treatments. The Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least A.D. 300 coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin series in South Carolina was first observed by Ward (1978, 1983) from the White's Creek drainage in Marlboro County, South Carolina. Since then, a large Yadkin village has been identified by DePratter at the Dunlap site (38DA66) in Darlington County, South Carolina (Chester DePratter, personal communication 1985) and Blanton et al. (1986) have excavated a small Yadkin site (38SU83) in Sumter County, South Carolina. Research at 38FL249 on the Roche Carolina tract in northern Florence County revealed an assemblage including Badin, Yadkin, and Wilmington wares (Trinkley et al. 1993:85-102). Anderson et al. (1982:299-302) offer additional typological assessments of the Yadkin wares in South Carolina.

Over the years the suggestion that Cape Fear might be replaced by such types as Deep Creek and Mount Pleasant has raised considerable controversy. Taylor, for example, rejects the use of the North Carolina types in favor of those developed by Anderson et al. (1982) from their work at Mattassee Lake in Berkeley County (Taylor 1984:80). Cable (1991) is even less generous in his denouncement of ceramic constructs developed nearly a decade ago, also favoring adoption of the Mattassee Lake typology and chronology. This construct, recognizing five phases (Deptford I - III, McClellanville, and Santee I), uses a type variety system.

Regardless of terminology, these Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In some respects, the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Historical Synopsis

The area today known as Florence County received little attention until the Yemasee War of 1715 forced many of the Native Americans from

[3] The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland that seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there are "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

the region, allowing a more aggressive settlement policy in the region below the fall line, termed the "lower middle country" (Brown 1963:2; see also Wallace 1951). From about 1715 to 1727 there was a period of tremendous lust for land, with the accompanying fraud so common to period politics. In 1730, Governor Robert Johnson began a policy of frontier settlement, hinged on the creation of 11 townships and intended to increase the number of small, white farmers. This increased settlement would provide protection from South Carolina's enemies from within (as the African American slaves were viewed) and from without (including both the Spanish and the Native Americans).

With the creation of Georgia, only nine of the proposed 11 townships were actually established. One of these was Queensborough, 20,000 acres situated on the east and west sides of the Pee Dee River. The Queensborough boundaries have frequently been extended to include a large portion of southern Florence County (see King 1981:5). While not strictly a township, the Welch Tract was another center of frontier settlement. Joining Queensbourough on the northwest, the Welch Tract originated in 1736 and was settled by a colony of Welsh Baptists from Newcastle County, Pennsylvania (Wallace 1951:155).

Settlement in Queensborough was sporadic and limited, at least partially because the topography and soils were better suited to large plantations than to small farms. The rather limited high ground area was quickly obtained by a limited number of settlers (Merriwether 1940:89-90). One early settler in the Queensborough Township was Jacob Buckholt, a native of Prussia, who obtained two tracts in 1735 (Suzanne Linder, personal communication 1992). Buckholt apparently obtained several additional parcels on the Pee Dee in 1738 (S.C. Department of Archives and History, Mortgage Book B, p. 330, 410).

During this period the economy of the Pee Dee was oriented toward both mixed agricultural production, supplying the needs of the Georgetown rice plantations (see Rogers 1970:27) and also to the cash crop of indigo (Rogers 1970:52-53; Suzanne Linder, personal communication 1992). King (1981:11) found that a resident of the Mars Bluff area, Malachi Murphy, offered 1800 acres, ideal for the planting of indigo, for sale in 1745.

Only certain areas of the low country could produce rice profitably. This limiting factor, coupled with the dramatic decline in rice prices in the 1720s (see Coclanis 1989:106), provided the incentives necessary for serious consideration of indigo by planters. The economic motive for indigo was clear. Carman noted:

> Mr. Glen's account is that one acre of good land will produce 80 lb. And one slave may manage two acres and upwards, and raise provisions besides, and have all the winter months to saw lumber and be otherwise employed: 80 lb. At 3., the present price, is 12£ per acre; and 2 ½ acres at that rate amount to 30£ per slave, besides lumber, which is very considerable: but I should observe, that there is much indigo being brought now from Carolina which sells in London for from 5s. to 8s. a pound, some even higher, though the chief part of the crop may not yield more than 3s. or 4s.; this will alter the average price (Carman 1939:281-290[1775]).

Copenhaver (1930) suggests that a yield of 80 pounds per acre was high and better average was 30 to 40 pounds per acre. Eight slaves could cultivate, harvest, and prepare the dye from a 40 acre plot – with returns from 30¢ to $2.25 per pound.

The industry also flourished because of its unusual advantages – an indirect bounty, a protective tariff, and a monopoly on the British

market during the various wars that cut off access to the better Spanish and French indigo supplies (Sharrer 1971). Winberry also suggests that South Carolina's love affair with indigo ran hot and cold, unlike its commitment to rice. At the end of King George's War in 1748, may Carolina planters returned to rice. Indigo cultivation continued, but it was always of poor quality, typically the cheapest "copper indigo" quality. Carolina planters failed to pay close attention to the exacting requirements of processing, and the result was disastrous. According to Winberry, "importers also noticed that in many of the casks there was nothing but a black spongy substance producing a muddy effect, as if the indigo were mixed with soil" (Winberry 1979:248).

If processing was difficult, cultivation was fairly simple. The crop was planted from seed in middle April, with a preference for dry, loose soil typical of "hickory lands and pine barrens." The plant was harvested in late June or early July, immediately after it blossomed, by cutting it off at ground level. This allowed the roots to produce a second, and sometimes a third, crop before it was killed by frost.

The plants were hauled to the indigo vats and placed in a steeper made from pine or cypress planks measuring 16 feet square and 3 ½ to 5 feet deep. The plants were weighted down, covered with water, and allowed to ferment for 10 to 14 hours to remove the dye. The "liquor" was drained off of the wooden beating vats, which were typically 15 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 5 feet deep. There the solution was oxidized by beating. After visible precipitation began, limewater was added from the adjacent lime vat to aid coagulation of the dye. Agitation was continued for about an hour. Afterwards the liquid was drained from the vat and strained through woolen cloth to catch the dye. As Carman notes, "indigo has a very disagreeable smell, while making and curing; and the feces, when taken out of the steeper, if not immediately buried in the ground (for which it is excellent manure) breeds incredible swarms of flies" (Carman 1939:288[1775]).

The wet dye was carried to the curing shed where it was pressed to remove as much water as possible and cut into cubes about 2 inches square. It was dried on trays in the shade, and then placed in barrels with damp moss where it was allowed to mold for several days. Afterwards it was brushed off and graded into four categories – fine blue, ordinary blue, fine purple, and ordinary copper, the least desirable (Copenhaver 1930:895).

While geographically part of the "low country," the Florence and Pee Dee region was too remote and isolated from the seat of government in Charleston to feel the "taming influences of church and state" (King 1981:7). More to the point, however, there were a variety of serious complaints the Pee Dee region (as well as the rest of the "lower middle country") had with Charleston. In 1767 citizens of the region petitioned Charleston, noting:

> Married Women have been ravished – virgins deflowered, and other unheard of cruelties committed by these barbarous Ruffians – who, by being let loose among us (and connived at) by the Acting Magistrates, have thereby reduced numbers of Individuals to Poverty (quoted in King 1981:7).

The region's repeated requests for assistance to stem the tide of lawlessness were rejected, creating a division between the wealthy planter elite of Charleston and the small farmers of the interior. In the wake of the broken trust the Regulator Movement was formed, the most significant vigilante movement in the pre-Revolutionary back country (see Brown 1963 for additional details). By the summer of 1768 the Regulators, to many, had become the criminals. A skirmish of shorts was fount in July 1768 between a group of Regulators, led by Gideon Gibson, and a band of constables intent upon restoring order. One of the constables was killed and several Regulators were wounded, with the battle a

victory for the Regulators (Wallace 1951:226). Shortly afterward, a second effort by Provost Marshall Roger Pinckney met similar, if not so severe, failure when the region's militia refused to take action (King 1981:8; Wallace 1951: 226-227).

The establishment of judicial districts for the South Carolina back country in April 1768 offered some political stability for the region. What is today northern Florence County, including the survey corridor, was placed in the Cheraws District (St. David's Parish), with court located at Long Bluff on the Pee Dee, near Society Hill. The southern part of Florence County remained in the Georgetown Judicial District of Prince Frederick Parish (Wallace 1951:166). Typical of the region's distrust of authority, Long Bluff quickly became known as a "resort of judges and lawyers" and in spite of this improvement in the political system, the residents still lacked free schools, adequate bridges and roads, and ordinances to provide for the safe navigations of the Pee Dee River.

In 1757 the white population of the region later to become Florence County was approximately 4300, while there were only about 500 black slaves. This predominance of white farmers was typical of the entire back country and to some degree, exacerbated the differences between the low country and the back country. Certainly the back country was little concerned with world affairs during the last half of the eighteenth century. Instead, the region continued to turn inward, working to improve both land and river navigation. The first road in the region was the Cheraw-Georgetown stagecoach road, established in 1747, but it wasn't until 1768 that a public ferry across the Pee Dee was established on James Welch Tract property (King 1981:18).

In fact, the South Carolina Provincial Congress sent William H. Drayton into the region in 1774 to explain to the rural population how badly they were being treated by England and engender support for the growing revolutionary movement (King 1981:19). From the beginning of the war until about 1780 the American Revolution in the Pee Dee region was little more than a civil war, with occasional desultory raids by Whig and Tory factions. In 1780 this changed, as the British sought to "Americanize" the war, bringing it to the South and encouraging "local participation" using large numbers of Tories. At first the strategy was very successful, with Charleston falling in mid-1780 and Camden falling later that same year.

In an effort to consolidate their hold on South Carolina, the British, under Major General James Wemyss, took up a savage war in the South Carolina back country. Ostensively to destroy local resistance, and particularly to isolate and neutralize General Francis Marion, Wemyss marched through the back country, leaving a trail of destruction 15 miles wide and 70 miles long. Many of the plantations shown on the 1775 Mouzon map were likely destroyed by Wemyss (King 1981:23; Rankin 1973:79). This proved to be a mistake, as it encouraged even more aggressive resistance to British military rule. Marion relentlessly attacked British lines of communication, camping at Snow Island (at the confluence of Lynches and Pee Dee rivers).

While the Revolutionary history of the Florence area is complex, it is well documented by King (1981) and Rankin (1973). Only four notable engagements were fought in the region (although most of the action consisted of maneuvers and partisan activities). These include the capture of Snow Island by British troops in March of 1781, the engagement at Witherspoon's Ferry that same month, a skirmish at Black Creek, and the Lynches Creek Massacre (Lipscomb 1991). None of these, however, are in the immediate survey area.

By September 1781 the British abandoned the back country, fleeing to Charleston and fighting in the Pee Dee region ended with the June 1782 surrender of Tory forces. On December 14, 1782 the British evacuated Charleston, ending the southern campaign of the American Revolution.

The transition from war to peace appears to have come rapidly to the Pee Dee region.

Prince Frederick Parish, the political subdivision of Georgetown District sustained the majority of war activity. Yet by 1790, the Parish contained 3500 whites and 4500 slaves, figures which Rogers (1970:158-169) interprets to show that social and economic recovery after the Revolution was reasonably rapid.

Shortly after the Revolution efforts were again made to make the political divisions of the region more responsive. In 1785 the new districts of Marlboro, Chesterfield, Darlington, and Marion were created, with Marion called Liberty Precinct until 1795. Modern Florence County was contained within Marion, Darlington, and Marlboro districts, with the survey vicinity part of Darlington (see Stauffer 1994).

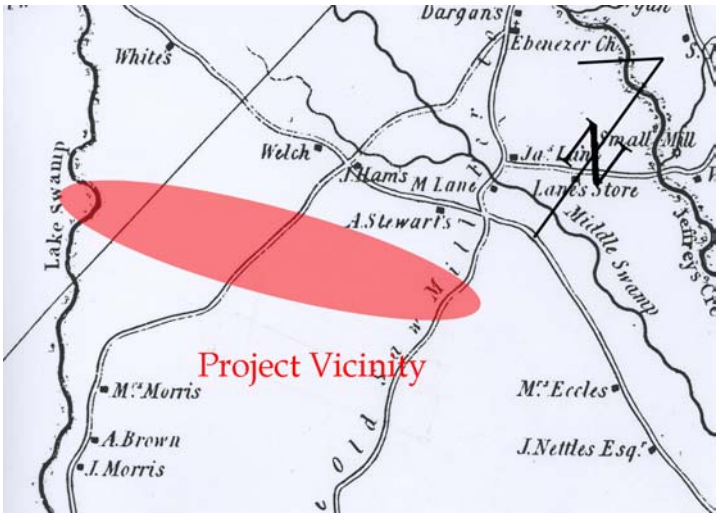

Figure 7. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area.

The period from about 1784 until 1860 is characterized a maturing of the economic and, especially agricultural potential of the region. By 1820 the Pee Dee had been made navigable up to Cheraw and it was noted that:

> Cotton has been carried from Chartham [Cheraw Hill] and Society Hill to Georgetown fort seventy-five cents the bale; whereas it could not be carried the same distance by land for less than two dollars, or by water by the former navigation for less than one dollar and twenty-five cents (Kohn 1938:85).

The Pee Dee continued to be the major transportation route until the arrival of the railroads in the late 1840s and early 1850s. Land transport continued to be unreliable at best and life threatening at worst.

Mills' *Atlas* of 1826 fails to show any subscribers in the project area (Figure 7).

By 1820 Darlington District, which included the project area, had a population of 10, 949, of which over 40%, or 4,473, were African American slaves. Compared to the 1800 census, there was a fairly significant increase in the proportion of black slaves in the district, probably the result of an increasing emphasis on cotton (Mills 1972:515, 623 [1826]). Mills notes that the swamps, if properly drained, yield the most valuable lands, bringing upwards of $40 to $60 an acre (still far below the $100 an acre demanded for prime Georgetown rice lands). Vast amounts of the creek swamps, however, were classed as waste lands since no efforts had been made to either drain or reclaim them. These tracts were most often used as cattle ranges or for timber, continuing practices that was common in the low country during the early eighteenth century, but abandoned as the region began to emphasize cash crops (Mills 1972:512-513, 519[1826]).

The proportion of African-American slaves continued to increase in the Darlington-Florence area. By 1850 slaves accounted for nearly 68% of the total population (DeBow 1854:302). The district had 857 farms, accounting for a total of 663,570 acres. The average farm size was 774 acres, of which about 144 acres were improved. Darlington was the ninth largest grower of cotton, producing 13,005 bales, for an average of about 15 bales per farm (DeBow 1854:306).

Florence in some ways was better treated by the Civil War than it had been by the Revolution. The Pee Dee Rifles were created in July 1861 and joined as Company D of the First South Carolina Regiment, as well as the Pee Dee Light Artillery (King 1981:46). In November 1862 a site just above the Wilmington and Manchester Railroad was selected by the Confederate Navy for the Pee Dee Navy Yard. One of the three completed vessels of this yard was the CSS Pee Dee, which was scuttled March 1865. King reports that the propellers of the gunboat were "salvaged" in 1926 while the hull was removed from the Pee Dee River in the 1950s. When it failed as a tourist attraction in the Florence area it was moved to the South of the Border Complex near Dillon (King 1981:55-56). Still unsuccessful as a tourist attraction, these remains were apparently destroyed during the construction of I-95 (Hartley n.d.).

The closest the war ever got to Florence was the creation of a Confederate prison in September 1864. Widely recognized as comparable to Andersonville in brutality and cruelty, the camp functioned for only five months before the advancing Union army necessitated its abandonment. At least 2800 Union soldiers, or about 560 a month, died at the 24 acre camp (King 1974).

Sherman's troops passed to the northwest of Florence, leaving the town and the Pee Dee region little worse for the experience. Eventually, the 167th New York Infantry occupied Florence, ensuring at least in the short term its reconstruction (King 1981:60). In spite of military occupation, violence was typical during the reconstruction period and Florence saw considerable Klan activity into the early twentieth century.

Farmers in the Florence area, like elsewhere in South Carolina, experimented with wage labor immediately after the Civil War. Faced with uncertainty, but the need to begin planting immediately, many accepted the wage labor solution begun by the Union Army and latter espoused by the Freedman's Bureau. To support the wage system no less than seven major types of contracts were used by Southern planters (see Sholmowitz 1979). This system, however, was doomed to failure, being disliked by both the Freedmen, who found it too reminiscent of slavery, and the plantation owners, who found that it gave the Freedmen too much liberty. In response to both the Freedman's Bureau and the growing freedom of the blacks, the South Carolina legislature passed the Black Codes in September 1865. These extended the restrictions placed on blacks and, in Charles Orser's words, "the Black Code had established what whites wanted for blacks: a nominal freedom that would lead them to a new kind of slavery" (Orser 1988:50).

Beginning in 1887 there was a growing sentiment for the creation of a new county. A pamphlet arguing the cause from the perspective of those in adjacent Marion District explained:

> The foremost and most powerful reason is, that Marion – a county possessing the area of Rhode Island, and three-fifths that of Delaware – is divided in two by the Great Pee Dee River. The court house is in the eastern portion, the people in the western portion are thus not only remote from the county seat, even if access were easy, but access is attained only by penetrating the dense river swamp . . . by perilous and roundabout roads, so called, and crossing the stream by ferries, there being no bridges, public or private . . . . To go from west Marion to the court house involves two days in traveling, besides spending the night at a Marion hotel (Evans 1888:1).

It further explained that as trade from western Marion County began to desert Marion, it turned to the City of Florence:

> . . . a town which has spring up where 30 years ago there was seen an unbroken forest. The junction there of three important (and completed) railroads first give it an impetus (Evans 1888:2).

Florence was created as a county that same year – 1888 – carved out of neighboring Marion, Darlington, and Marlboro counties.

The creation of the new county began what King (1981) calls an era of "boasterism," loudly proclaiming the benefits of Florence. One example is the advertisement of Florence County at the 1895 Atlanta Cotton Exposition:

> . . . situated as she is, the great railroad center of eastern South Carolina, surrounded by lands which produce corn, wheat, rye, oats, tobacco, rice, sugarcane, cotton, potatoes, onion, and vegetables of all kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plums, grapes, berries, melons in profusion, whose forests contain most of the woods of commerce, with water power and easy access to fuel for manufacturing, Florence County presents an inviting field for investment and immigration (quoted in King 1981:168).

This advertisement is interesting since it begins the promotion of tobacco in Florence County, as well as encourages immigration.

Tobacco was a growing concern during this period, with the first tobacco growers association formed in 1895. Tobacco was referred to "Our Nicotiana Tobacum – Pearl of the Pee Dee." That same year there were 139 tobacco growers, with most planting around 5 acres and the largest planting only 40 acres (King 1981:170). By the mid-1890s the average profit on an acre of tobacco was $150 to $200 an acre, well over the $10 an acre provided by cotton.

Acreage increased from about 1200 acres in 1891 to over 4400 acres just a year later, in 1892. Pee Dee tobacco production grew at an even more fantastic rate in the first decade of the twentieth century, with the acreage increasing from 25,000 to 98,000 acres. Florence participated in the gradual recovery of cotton after the Civil War, only to evidence the decline in 1930 resulting from the boll weevil and the depression. Tobacco, in contrast, held strong.

Coupled with the increased planting of tobacco were efforts to bring tobacco markets to South Carolina. The first tobacco warehouse auction in South Carolina was organized by Frank Rodgers in 1890 at his Florence Tobacco Manufacturing and Warehouse Company. Even this first auction was a social event, with 300 persons attending. Other businessmen and investors followed this lead and a number of warehouses were established in the Pee Dee – at the height of bright leaf production there were 77 markets in 29 towns across South Carolina. These warehouses were visible indications of prosperity and progress and often the buildings were financed by joint stock companies composed of local citizens hoping to cash in on this new wealth. One such warehouse in Florence was described:

> It is a handsome structure, having a floor space 60 by 100 feet, and this is lighted by twenty large ground glass skylights. In front is a two-story brick structure, 40 by 50 feet in size, containing the offices. It has large sliding doors on all sides and is equipped with the latest improved trucks, etc. (*The State*, August 30, 1895).

Farmers brought their tobacco to these warehouses from mid-July through September. The tobacco was weighed and stacked in long rows on the floor for sale, with the auctions being memorable social events, often compared to fairs.

Table 1.
Systems of Tenure

	Share-Cropping	Share Renting	Cash Renting
Landlord furnishes:	land housing fuel tools work stock seed half of fertilizer feed for stock	land housing fuel 1/2 or 1/3 fertilizer	land housing fuel
Tenant furnishes:	labor half of fertilizer	labor work stock feed for stock tools seed ¾ or 2/3 fertilizer	labor work stock feed for stock tools seed fertilizer
Landlord receives:	1/2 of crop	1/4 or 1/3 of crop	fixed amount in cash or lint cotton
Tenant receives:	1/2 of crop	3/4 or 2/3 of crop	entire crop less fixed amount

When the auctions were over, the buildings continued to be a focal point in the community, being used for political rallies, tobacco exhibits, and social events.

This last decade of the nineteenth century marked the culmination of 30 years of effort to remove blacks for the political process and to re-assert white supremacy. The 1895 South Carolina Constitutional Convention almost totally disenfranchised blacks and the Federal government's retreat from its duty to protect the freedom of black citizens was symbolized by the 1896 Supreme Court decision of Plessy v. Ferguson, which established the doctrine of "separate but equal." The Ku Klux Klan remained active in Florence County well into the 1920s, with the 1923 Confederate Veteran's Reunion in 1923 marking the climax of their activity (King 1981:331).

Being unable to vote in elections, an increasing number of Florence County blacks "voted with their feet," leaving Florence and South Carolina for the north. This exodus spurred many to encourage immigration into the region, in order to replenish the work force. In spite of this, by 1923 upwards of 100 blacks a month were leaving Florence.

In the most simple of terms, two types of tenancy existed in the South – sharecropping and renting. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay the landlord part of the crop produced, while renting required the tenant to pay a fix rent in either crops or money. While similar, there were basic differences, perhaps the most significant of which was that the sharecropper was simply a wage laborer who received his portion of the crop from the plantation owner, while the renter paid his rent to the landlord.

Further distinctions can be made between sharecropping, share-renting, and cash-renting (see Table 1). With sharecropping the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the necessary fertilizer, while the landlord supplied everything else, including the land, housing, tools, work animals, feed, and seed. At harvest, the crop would be divided, usually equally. In share-renting the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer, while the tenant supplied everything else necessary, including the animals, feed, seed, and tools. At harvest the crop was divided equal to the portion of fertilizer each party provided. Finally, with cash-renting the landlord supplied the land and the housing, while the tenant supplied everything else. The owner received a fixed rent per acre in cash.

Agee et al. provide some general information on agricultural activities during the early twentieth century, observing that:

Farms operated by tenants are

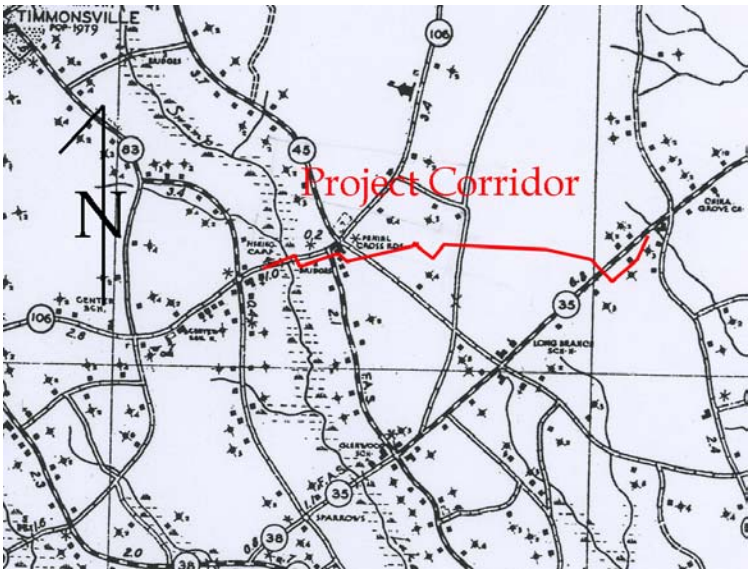

Figure 8. Portion of the 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Florence County* showing the project area.

> usually devoted mainly to the production of cotton, corn, and tobacco. The ordinary yield of cotton on such farms is a little over one-half bale per acre, while that of corn is about 16 bushels. These yields could easily be increased, as is demonstrated by the better farmers, who obtain 1 bale to 2 bales of cotton and 40 to 60 bushels of corn per acre . . . . About 65 per cent of the farms are operated by tenants . . . . The ordinary yield of tobacco in the county is somewhat over 800 pounds per acre. The price has averaged about 14 cents per pound (Agee et al. 1916:9).

By the late 1920s the boll weevil was reaching Florence County and one newspaper editorial reported that the weevil had "put a stop to the lazy man's crop," and that now planting took "brains, money, hard work, and poison to raise cotton hereabouts these days" (quoted in King 1981:338).

Florence County is within the Atlantic Coastal Plain of the Cotton Region, while further to the west (and encompassing most of the South Carolina) was the Black Belt (Woofter 1936). The Atlantic Coastal Plain was characterized by medium sized plantations, while the Black Belt was the heart of the South's oldest Southern cotton plantations. As a consequence of these historical differences the two regions developed distinctively different forms of tenancy.

There was little difference in owner wealth between the two areas and the difference in net income per average plantation ($5,343 compared to $3,087) is partially the result of the smaller average plantation size in the Black Belt. There was considerable difference in the net income of tenants in the two areas. In the Atlantic Coastal Plain croppers averaged $255 and share-renters averaged $426 a year. The tenants in the Black Belt fared far worse, averaging $127 for croppers and $106 for share-renters. In addition, the tenancy rates varied from about 60% in the Atlantic Coastal Plain to 74% in the Black Belt. The Atlantic Coastal Plain tenancy system, however, had a high percentage of wage tenants (10.7%) than did the Black Belt (1.8%).

Florence County was in most respects typical of these findings. The tenancy rate in 1930 was about 66%, slightly higher that the region, but below that typical of the Black Belt. On the other hand, wage renters comprised fully a quarter of the tenants. Florence had nearly equal numbers of white and black tenants – 1927 white tenants (51.6%) and 1807 black tenants (48.4%) in 1930. Yet the white tenants farmed 101,185 acres compared to the blacks' 63,047 acres, suggesting a disproportionate distribution of agricultural wealth.

The 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Florence County* shows

several structures, including tenant houses, however, these sites were not found along the corridor (Figure 8).

Previous Research

The Inner Coastal Plain has received relatively little archaeological attention. For example, the only major surveys conducted in the Florence County area are the 1984 investigation of 2700 acre Santee Cooper Pee Dee Electrical Generating Station (Taylor 1984), the 1,400 acre Roche Carolina facility (Trinkley and Adams 1992) and the investigation of about 500 acres for the proposed Honda facility (Trinkley 1997b). More recently, an addition to the Honda facility and a transmission line for the facility were surveyed (see Trinkley and Southerland 2002a and 2002b).

The only other survey conducted within 0.5 mile of the corridor was for the substation associated with the proposed transmission line (Trinkley and Southerland 2005). No sites were found at the substation site.

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along the center line of the corridor, which had a right-of-way of 75 feet. The substation associated with the corridor had been previously surveyed with no resources recorded (Trinkley and Southerland 2005).

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of 0.8 to 2.0 feet or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

A total of 240 shovel tests were excavated within along the center line of the corridor.

Analysis of collections would follow professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the tract failed to identify any remains. This is likely due to the lack of any distinct ridge top and distance from a permanent water source.

Figure 9. Shovel testing along the corridor.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

Figure 10. View of previously surveyed substation lot.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation and Findings

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information

important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

Figure 11. View of the c. 1875 Herbert Anderson house.

Although several small surveys have been performed in Florence County, they all failed to identify any sites in the project area. One structure, however, was recorded within sight of the proposed corridor. The structure is the c. 1875 Herbert Anderson house (Figure 11). The house (0111), which is reported to have stayed in the Anderson family since its construction, features a gable on hip roof with shed style porch that covers the right façade. The left façade exhibits a bay window and two corbelled brick chimneys are located on the interior of the house. A rear addition (Figure 12), including a two-car garage was added to the house in the 1990s. In addition, vinyl siding and storm windows have altered the exterior.

While the exterior has received some modifications, the interior of the house is reported by the owner to have had almost no alteration (Mrs. Anderson, personal communication 2006).

Figure 12. View of rear additions to the house.

Without examining the interior, the modifications to the outside of the house prevent the structure from being eligible for the National Register. Although the house can be seen across a field from the transmission corridor, the distance is almost 800 feet, so visual obtrusion will be minimal.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of an approximately 4.5 mile corridor in central Florence County. This work, conducted for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project corridor and is intended to assist Pee Dee Electric Cooperative in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation no sites were identified. This is likely the result of the lack of a distinct ridge top and distance from a permanent water source.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile revealed no structures that retain the integrity for the National Register of Historic Places. One structure, a c. 1875 house (0111), was recorded, however, modifications to the exterior of the house make it ineligible for the National Register.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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